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FEBRUARY 1936

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BORIS STERN, Editor

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THE SOCIAL SECURITY BOARD

BY

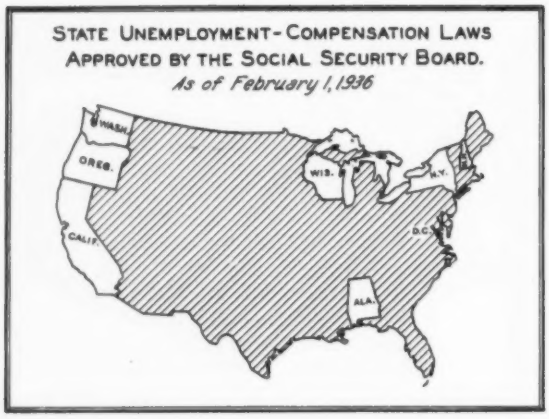
JOHN G. WINANT, CHAIRMAN
SOCIAL SECURITY BOARD

We are entering a period in American history in which the United States will be making its first effort, on a Nation-wide basis, to provide some reasonable degree of economic security to workers who ordinarily are employed and who lose their jobs because of no fault of their own. It will be a period in which a Nation-wide system of old-age benefits will be established for men and women who choose to retire or are forced to retire at the age of 65. As a further step toward social security the Federal Government will give substantial aid to the States for assistance to the needy aged, crippled or otherwise dependent children, the blind, and for the upbuilding of the States' child welfare, maternal care, and health services in general.

The Social Security Act does not itself directly establish a system of unemployment compensation. Until the States pass their own laws there will be no governmental unemployment compensation for workers who become unemployed in those States. The Federal assistance provided by the Social Security Act, however, makes it possible for the States to take the initiative in passing unemployment-insurance laws without fear that their industries will be subjected to a cost not also borne by industries in competing States. It levies on employers of 8 or more individuals a uniform pay-roll tax, but permits any employer in those States which have approved unemployment-compensation laws to deduct from this tax, up to 90 percent of its amount, the contributions which he makes to the State unemployment-compensation fund. Thus no State will suffer any disadvantage by enacting, and none will gain any advantage by failure to enact, an unemployment-compensation law.

A cooperative Federal-State system of unemployment compensation, such as the Social Security Act is designed to encourage, will not of course provide a cure-all for unemployment. It will, however, establish an important first-line of defense against the effects of unemployment. If in 1922 all of our States had adopted unemployment-compensation plans comparable to those now in force in several States, by the end of 1929 reserves of over 2 billion dollars would have been available to meet the present depression. It is not difficult to visualize the steadying and stimulating effect on American business that would have resulted from the disbursement of this huge fund, and the real moral and material aid to the individuals who were eligible to receive unemployment compensation.

The fear of destitution in old age is second only to that of unemployment. Recent economic and social developments have proven this fear to be well grounded. With a declining birth rate, reduced immigration, and increased life expectancy, the proportion of older persons in the population is increasing rapidly. In 1910 there were approximately 4,000,000 persons in the United States over 65 years of age. This is approximately 4.3 percent of the total population. By 1960 the number will have increased to 13,600,000, or 9.3 percent of the population. Meanwhile, what is happening in regard to the employment of older persons? Recent studies have shown that when work slackens off men are surely discriminated against because of age. They also show conclusively that, when rehiring takes place, it is much more difficult for the old men to get reemployed. The very speed and efficiency of American industry militate against the older

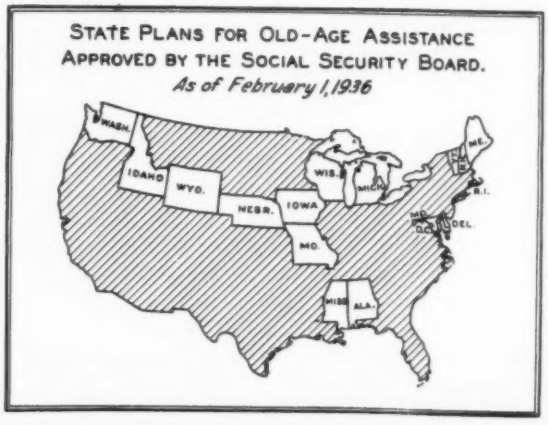


worker. Thus, while physical life reaches farther into the sixties and seventies, economic life ebbs back into the forties and fifties, and the chances of destitution in old age continually increase. The years of depression, too, have increased the immediate problem of the aged. Thousands, through bank failures, foreclosures, and other consequences of business collapse, have lost their life savings at an age and at a time when they can have no hope of again building up a competency for old age.

The Social Security Act tackles the problem of old age in two ways. To meet the immediate emergency and provide for those who are now old and needy, it sets up a cooperative Federal-State system of old-age assistance, under which the Federal Government will match dollar for dollar, up to a certain maximum, the amounts spent by any State or its subdivisions for an approved plan of relief for the dependent aged. This phase of the act is already in effect.

For those who are still young, the act sets up a system of Federal old-age benefits or annuities. These will be administered directly by the Social Security Board. Beginning in 1942, all workers in our major commercial and industrial establishments, who are over 65 years of age and have had a required period of prior employment, will on retiring from active employment be paid a regular monthly income. This will vary, in accordance with their previous earnings, from $10 to $85 per month, and will be paid to them as a matter of right, not as charitable relief.

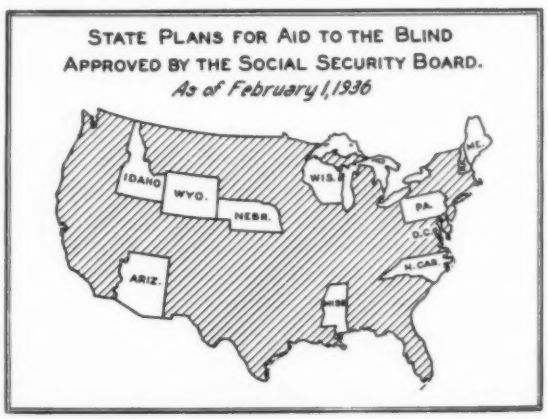
The Social Security Board consists of three members. It is organized on a nonpartisan basis, and, with the exception of experts and lawyers, staff appointments are limited to the civil service. Although the act became law on August 14, 1935, the appropriation bill which was to supply the Board with funds failed of passage because of a filibuster in the last hours of the first session of the 74th Congress. However, with the aid of the Department of Labor the Board has been enabled to explore the problems it would have to meet in carrying out its duties. A skeleton organization has already been set up around which, when funds become available, the rest of the Board's structure can be built. When this is complete, the work of the Social Security Board will be carried on in eight bureaus. Three of them, the Bureaus of Federal Old-Age Benefits, Unemployment Compensation, and Public Assistance, will be concerned directly with the administration of the provisions of the act. The Bureau of Public Assistance will handle the grants to States for old-age assistance, aid to dependent children, and aid to the blind. The other five -- Research and Statistics, Business Management, Accounts and Audits, Informational Service, and the office of the General Counsel -- will be "service" bureaus to assist the Board, the other bureaus, and the States with specific information or other types of specialized aid.

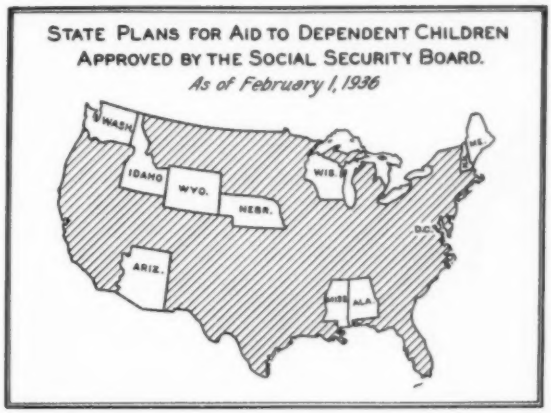


To facilitate closer contact with local phases of the problem and to make the services of the Board more readily available to the States, a field organization made up of several regional offices and a larger number of district and branch offices is being planned. In cooperation with the U. S. Employment Service of the Department of Labor a Nation-wide network of public employment offices will be used for the purposes of paying unemployment benefits when they become available and of constantly attempting to return the unemployed to employment. Every effort is being made to develop, simplify, and otherwise improve the machinery for administration of the social security program.

Even in this early stage of the program the Board has already approved 8 State laws for unemployment compensation, 17 State plans for old-age assistance, 11 State plans for aid to the blind, and 11 State laws for aid to dependent children, as indicated on the maps. These are the first steps in a long-range effort to provide security against the major hazards of modern economic life.

The Board wishes to clear up a number of misunderstandings which have grown up about the Act. For instance, it has come to the attention of the Board that certain employers are asking their employees to fill out detailed questionnaires on their personal lives, claiming that this information is





required of them by the Government under the terms of the Social Security Act. One company announced that "the questionnaire attached is to be accurately filled in by every employee for Government records. . . . The labor-union membership as you will notice is also included. This is supposed to be answered for the Government only and does not mean that you must or must not belong to such organization." *The Social Security Board has not requested that employers gather personal information of this kind for them; nor will it be required when rules and regulations are drawn up.*

In certain parts of the country accounting forms and systems which it is claimed have been "approved" by the Social Security Board are being sold and advertised. The Board has not approved any accounting form or system, but on the contrary has issued a statement to the governor of every State and to the press that no elaborate accounting forms or devices are required to keep the records necessary under the act. Employers will need only to acquaint themselves with the regulations issued by the Treasury Department for the collection of the excise tax on pay rolls under Title IX of the act, which became effective January 1, 1936, and the regulations of their State unemployment-compensation commissions. The rules and regulations concerning the taxes under Title VIII of the Social Security Act, which begin January 1, 1937, have not yet been issued by the Treasury Department.

THE PROBLEM OF FITTING WORKERS TO JOBS

W. H. STEAD, ASSOCIATE DIRECTOR
U. S. EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

What kind of work does a quiller perform in the spooling and warping department of the cotton-textile industry? What machines and tools is he required to handle in the course of his work? How soon can a worker become an experienced operator? What are the hazards of the job?

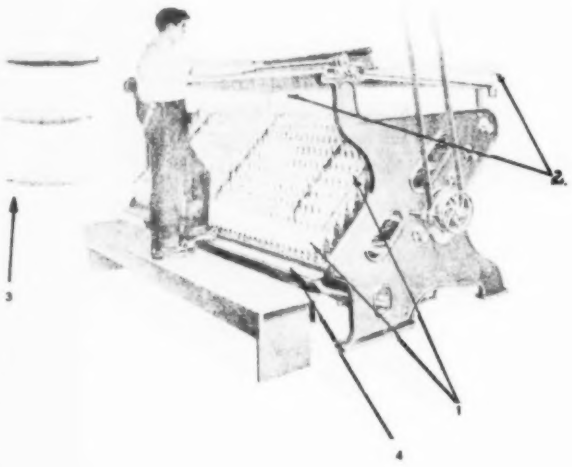
To answer these and similar job questions the U. S. Employment Service has been making studies of a wide variety of occupations in industry. At the present time, about 1,600 occupations in 7 industries have been covered by a field staff operating in various parts of the country. Two complete industry reports, one on job specifications in laundries, and the other on job specifications in the cotton-textile industry, have already been published.

The information is gathered primarily for the purpose of assisting the staff of the 722 district and 1,400 branch offices of the Employment Service scattered throughout the Nation in selecting the right kind of applicants for available job openings.

One of the needs of an employment office is a device for separating the competent workman from the applicant who claims to be experienced but who in reality is not. It has been demonstrated conclusively that for most occupations it is possible to prepare a set of questions which can be readily answered by the experienced workman but not by the novice. For example, the experienced large-truck driver knows that when placing tires on a double-wheeled truck the poorest tires should be put on the outside, while

QUILLER

COTTON TEXTILE INDUSTRY — SPOOLING AND WARPING DEPARTMENT



1. BOBBINS OR QUILLS ON POWER-DRIVEN SPINDLES
2. DYED THREAD COMING FROM BALL WARP
3. QUILLS
4. POWER CONTROL

Summary of Duties

Operates a machine which winds yarn from dyed "ball warps" onto quills; works under general supervision of SECOND HAND.

Work Performed

1. Threads ropelike strand composed of many individual strands of yarn through a series of simple feed pulleys.
2. Arranges threads from "ball warp" in comb of Quiller, placing each thread between two upright metal teeth of the comb.
3. Draws each strand of yarn through a guide eye and wraps it around the bobbin or quill several times so that it will wind onto bobbin.
4. Starts machine by stepping on foot pedal and allows it to run until the bobbins are filled; if a break occurs in any thread, the machine is stopped, the yarn is threaded through comb and guide, and the ends are knotted together.
5. Doffs machine: Removes full bobbins and replaces them with empties, and turns the end of the thread around the empty bobbin several times.
6. When a chain of "ball warp" runs out, the ends of another warp are twisted to the ends of the exhausted ball: Worker puts sticky chalk on hand and takes two ends between thumb and forefinger and joins them by rolling them together.

Machine, Tools, and Materials

Machine: Quiller, which winds yarn from dyed ball warps onto quills or bobbins. It consists of a series of guide and tension pulleys through which and around which the warp threads are passed, a comb that separates the individual strands of warp one from another, a bank of live spindles, and guide wires which rise and fall in order to distribute the yarn along the length of the bobbins or quills as it is wound on them. (See illustration opposite specification on BEAMER.)

Materials: Ball warp; bobbins; quills.

Minimum Qualifications for Employment

Education: Speak, read, and write English.

Experience: An experienced man can do simple work after 5 or 6 weeks, but it will require 2 to 3 years to become an expert QUILLER.

Working Conditions

Surroundings: Humid; noisy.

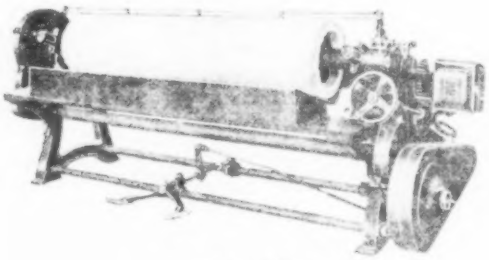
the casual automobile driver, trying to bluff his way into a truck driver's job, would probably say that it makes no difference. Of course, no one question is relied on to test the applicant's competence for employment. Indeed, a whole series of questions is used, and this is only one of the means available to determine the individual's knowledge of an occupation.

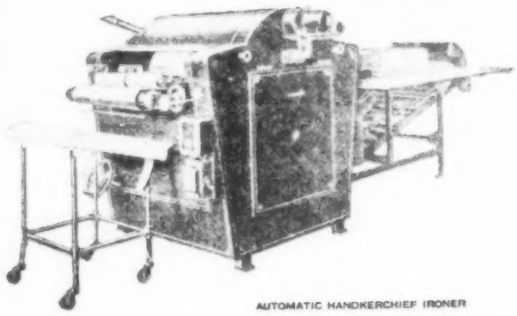
Part of the work of the field staff is to prepare such job questions. After careful inspection by a staff member especially trained for this work, the job questions are released for use to the employment offices, but not until it has been proven definitely that they can and will serve to differentiate the experienced from the inexperienced workers.

Another problem with which the staff of an employment office is confronted is to determine just what basic abilities workers must have in order to be successful on their jobs. Why is it that some really intelligent people never learn to drive a car well even after years of driving? Why do they never adjust themselves to the task of shifting gears smoothly or to judge the speed of an oncoming car? Why should a person who lacks these required abilities, and is thus foredoomed to failure, enter the occupation of chauffeur, truck driver, or cab driver? It is needlessly wasteful of money and human resources for individuals to take jobs when they lack the necessary abilities to succeed in their occupation. A Chicago taxicab company has cut its maintenance cost over 25 percent by carefully selecting its drivers by means of tests for abilities of which the layman is usually unaware.

HANDKERCHIEF FEEDER OR HANDKERCHIEF IRONER

HANDY IRONER





AUTOMATIC HANDKERCHIEF IRONER

LAUNDRY INDUSTRY — FLAT-WORK IRONING DEPARTMENT

Summary of Duties

Feeds handkerchiefs or other small pieces of semidry wash between rolls of machine which irons them; works under general supervision of laundry manager or department foreman.

Work Performed

1. Opens handkerchiefs or other small pieces of wash.
2. Lays one edge between rolls of ironer, taking care not to run pieces through wrinkled.
3. Sometimes alternates with RECEIVERS or FLAT-WORK FOLDERS.

Machine, Tools, and Materials

Machine: Composed of one or more heated rolls which dry and iron flat, wash goods; may be large enough to require four feeders at one time on small work.
Materials: Works with semidry wash goods of all kinds and must exercise care not to tear goods.

Minimum Qualifications for Employment

Experience: None necessary.
Physical: Employers seem to prefer smaller workers; may stand or sit all day (depending upon equipment); dexterousness of hands to open small pieces quickly and feed unwrinkled into machine without tearing.

Working Conditions

Surroundings: Hot and humid.
Hazards: Danger of crushing fingers and hands between rolls of ironer (not great with up-to-date equipment); burns.

Relation to Other Jobs

Promotion: Little opportunity.
Job combination: May be combined with any other job except RECEIVER in FLAT-WORK IRONING DEPARTMENT.

Additional Information to be Secured from Employer by Local Office

1. Type of machine used.
2. Type of laundry (family service, wet wash, finished work, etc.).
3. Production expected.

Many jobs are so simple that the casual observer may say that anyone can do the work. But it has been proven beyond doubt that if work is extremely monotonous there are certain types of people who are unable to sustain their attention, and fail because, from one point of view, the job is too simple. A large manufacturer of electrical equipment has found it profitable to

select workers for certain highly repetitive jobs on the basis of their "ability to withstand monotony."

Technological advances challenge our ability to make the adjustments necessary to take full advantage of improved industrial methods. It is a challenge which must be met successfully if our economic well-being is to be preserved. Even in predepression days we were faced with a shortage of many types of workers while having a large unemployed group. Today, after years of depression, there is added to the employment picture another group of unemployed persons -- the recent school graduates who have no experience at all. It is becoming increasingly important that we find a means of determining occupational fitness on the basis of what people are basically equipped to do, in addition to determining fitness from what they have been doing. Part of the task of the Occupational Research Program of the U. S. Employment Service is to establish procedures for determining the basic requirements of every job in terms of aptitude and ability and to develop the means of testing for such ability.

The Use of Injunctions in Labor Disputes

Henry W. Lehmann
Bureau of Labor Statistics

An injunction is an order issued by a court to restrain certain persons from conduct which if not stopped may result in irreparable property damage. If applied to workers or labor organizations, the court order is known as a labor injunction. In the United States both Federal and State courts have the power to issue injunctions in labor disputes.

Federal courts have played an important part in molding the law with regard to labor injunctions. Their power rests largely upon their right to prevent conduct which, if unrestrained, would interfere with the transportation of the mail or would disrupt commerce between the States. The Sherman antitrust law, which prohibits combinations in restraint of trade or commerce among the several States, is the Federal statute which has been used most often as a basis for issuing injunctions. The Supreme Court held that this statute included within its meaning labor as well as business combinations.

The rulings of the several courts relating to labor controversies have not been uniform. This is due largely to the fact that the courts of the 48 States and those of the Federal Government all have independent power to issue injunctions. Conduct which in one State might be restrained is often declared legal in other States.

INJUNCTIONS IN STRIKES

To what extent does the injunction limit collective activity of workers, such as the strike and the picket line? What standards do the courts use in determining the kind of conduct by workers to be enjoined? The legality of collective action depends chiefly upon its purpose or intent. Moreover, even if the purpose of collective action is declared legal, it cannot be achieved by the use of illegal means, such as fraud or violence. Thus, in the case of a strike, if the purpose is a proper one, such as to raise wages, no injunction can prevent the strike. But if violence, intimidation, or other means considered by the court to be illegal are employed in the conduct of the strike, the legitimate nature of

the purpose will not save the strike from being enjoined.

It is generally agreed that strikes to secure higher wages, shorter hours, or better working conditions are strikes for proper purposes. But there is no agreement as to the legality of the strike undertaken to secure a closed-shop contract or to force a dismissal of nonunion workers. In some cases, however, courts have sufficiently approved of collective agreements between employers and employees to declare as illegal strikes or lockouts which constituted a breach of such an agreement.

INJUNCTIONS IN PICKETING

Picketing -- that is, the patrolling by strikers of the place of employment for the purpose of persuading workers not to take their jobs -- is generally regarded by workers as an effective tool in the conduct of the strike. As in the case of strikes, the legality of picketing may depend on its purpose. Purposes which justify a strike will also justify picketing. Thus, picketing in a strike for higher wages is usually considered legal.

The lawfulness of picketing also depends upon the character of the conduct in each particular case. Great differences of opinion exist among the State and Federal courts as to what conduct is permissible on picket lines. Violence, the use of force, fraud, and intimidation are prohibited everywhere. Some courts have held that all picketing necessarily involves intimidation and hence must be restrained. But a preponderance of judicial opinion concedes the possibility of peaceful picketing and merely restricts violence, the use of deception in persuading other men not to work, and other forms of clearly illegal behavior.

Does the use of language such as "scab" constitute intimidation, or may the picketing be considered peaceful despite utterances of this kind? Judicial interpretations as to the legality of such conduct differ. Some courts find in this language sufficient intimidation to warrant the issuance of an injunction. Other courts demand more compelling evidence of violence and intimidation before they will restrain workers from picketing.

How many men may picket? The Supreme Court has not established a hard and fast rule in regard to methods of picketing. Each case must be handled on its own circumstances. Generally, in the absence of violence, the courts tend to permit more pickets than in the cases where a record of violence and mutual ill-will exists. In recent times injunctions have frequently specified the exact number of men permitted at each entrance to the picketed plant, the number of paces they must be separated from each other, and even the character of the language they may be permitted to use.

Other activities of workers in their relations to employers have been restrained by the use of the injunction. Thus, a union may be enjoined from persuading employees to strike in violation of individual contracts with the employer wherein the workers have promised not to strike. Such individual contracts are commonly known as "yellow-dog" contracts. At first, the courts only protected contracts which existed for a fixed term, but later it was held that an injunction could be used to prevent the union from inducing employees to strike where the contract of employment was terminable at will. Thus, if employees promised that while they held their jobs they would not strike, any attempt to persuade them to strike would be enjoined by some courts regardless of whether the contract of employment was for an indefinite or a fixed period of time.

LEGISLATION ON INJUNCTIONS

Legislation by Federal and State bodies has considerably modified the law dealing with the use of injunctions in labor disputes. The Clayton Act passed in 1914 declared that "the labor of a human being is not a commodity or article of commerce" and that "nothing contained in the antitrust laws shall be construed to forbid the

existence and operation of labor organizations . . ." It provided that an injunction shall not prevent the quitting of work, the lawful advising and persuading of others to quit work, and the peaceful assembly of workers. Injunctions may be issued only when necessary to prevent irreparable damage to property. Another important provision of this act established, under certain conditions, the right of jury trial in contempt cases arising from labor disputes. Several States passed similar laws. In interpreting these laws the courts held that they did not legalize violent action in strikes or the use of force. One law which a State court interpreted to permit mass picketing and intimidation was held unconstitutional by the Supreme Court of the United States.

THE NORRIS-LA GUARDIA ACT

Congress made no further changes in the existing injunction law until 1932 when it passed the Norris-LaGuardia Anti-injunction Act. This statute lays down conditions which must be fulfilled before a Federal court may enjoin the collective conduct of workers. The act specifically declares that every worker shall "have full freedom of association, self-organization, and designation of representatives of his own choosing . . ."

In accordance with this law individual agreements by workers not to belong to a union or not to join strikes, etc., which have often been used as a basis for issuing injunctions, may no longer be protected in Federal courts.

The Norris-LaGuardia Act also lists certain types of conduct against which no injunction may be issued. Employees are permitted to give publicity to the facts involved in a labor dispute by patrolling, advertising, or any other method not involving fraud or violence. They may also assemble peacefully to further their interests in connection with a labor dispute. Moreover, no injunction may be issued to prevent the payment of strike benefits.

There still exist, however, cases where the Federal courts have jurisdiction to restrain collective action by workers. Such, for example, is the case of an industrial dispute in which fraud or violence is involved. But certain limitations restrict the court's power to issue injunctions even in these cases. Before a Federal court can act it must find (1) that unlawful acts have been threatened and will be committed unless restrained; (2) that substantial and irreparable damage to employer's property will follow; (3) that greater injury will be inflicted upon him by the denial of relief through an injunction than upon the worker by the granting of the injunction; (4) that the employer has no adequate remedy at law; and (5) that the local police are unable or unwilling to furnish adequate protection. Moreover, no injunction may be issued unless the defendant is given notice and an opportunity to be heard. This restricts the previous practice of issuing injunctions upon the statements of one party only.

Federal courts may still issue what is known as a temporary restraining order if it is shown on testimony under oath that irreparable damage will result to the employer's property by the denial of such relief. Such an order expires after 5 days. To obtain it the employer must put up a bond as security for any loss that might result to the worker from such an order erroneously issued.

The Norris-LaGuardia Act applies to the Federal courts only. However, the legislatures of approximately 12 States have passed similar statutes to regulate the power of their courts with respect to labor injunctions. Among these States are Colorado, Idaho, Indiana, Maryland, Minnesota, New York, North Dakota, Oregon, Utah, and Washington.

Although the Supreme Court of the United States has not reviewed the constitutionality of the Norris-LaGuardia Act, its action in a recent case indicates that it is not inclined to view the provisions of the act as repugnant to the Constitution. The case in question came up to a Circuit Court of Appeals, which held the act valid. On appeal to the Supreme Court that tribunal refused to hear the case, thus letting the decision of the circuit court stand.

INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES IN 1934

FLORENCE PETERSON
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

More strikes and lockouts started in 1934 than in 1929, but the total number was only half as large as in the postwar year of 1919. According to information collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1,856 industrial disputes began in 1934, as compared to 903 in 1929 and 3,630 in 1919. Nearly 1½ million workers were involved in 1934, and each lost on the average 13 working days.

The largest number of strikes and lockouts occurred in Pennsylvania, where 296 disputes involved 254,500 workers. New York was second, with 281 strikes and lockouts affecting over 190,000 workers. In California and Massachusetts more than 100,000 workers were involved in industrial disputes in 1934.

Industries Affected. Almost one-fifth (362) of the total number of disputes during the year occurred in mills producing textile fabrics and plants manufacturing wearing apparel. They affected 40 percent of the total number of workers. The transportation and communications industries experienced 156 strikes, involving 105,000 workers. The 143 strikes and lockouts in the mining industries affected 230,000 workers. In addition, 100 or more strikes and lockouts occurred in the following groups of industries: Foodstuffs; building and construction; hotels, restaurants, laundries, dyeing and cleaning, and elevator and maintenance service; and wholesale and retail trade.

Number of Workers. Nearly one-half (849) of all the strikes and lockouts in 1934 involved fewer than 100 workers. There were 18 strikes and lockouts which affected more than 10,000 workers. These included 7 in the textile industries and 1 city-wide strike called in sympathy with the general textile strike, 2 strikes in the anthracite region, 4 in bituminous-coal mining, 2 taxicab strikes, 1 in the construction industry in New York, and the general strike in San Francisco growing out of the longshoremen's strike.

MAJOR ISSUES OF STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS IN 1934

ISSUES	STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS		WORKERS INVOLVED	
	NUMBER	PERCENT OF TOTAL	NUMBER	PERCENT OF TOTAL
Total	1,856	100.0	1,466,695	100.0
Wages and hours	727	39.3	347,299	23.7
Union recognition, closed shop, discrimination, and violation of agreement	466	25.1	146,493	10.0
Union recognition and wages and hours	387	20.8	615,114	41.9
Miscellaneous	276	14.8	357,789	24.4

Duration. More than half (59 percent) of the strikes and lockouts in 1934 were settled within 2 weeks. In more than 38 percent of the cases employees returned to work within a week, while 23 percent of all the disputes continued for more than a month.

Causes. Questions of organization, discrimination because of union activity, the closed shop, and the problem of union recognition were the major causes of strikes during the year. More than half of all the workers were involved in disputes arising

from such causes. In a majority of these cases requests for changes in wages and hours accompanied the demand for recognition of the union. Wages and hours, where the question of unionization did not appear, were the principal matters at stake for 1 out of every 4 workers involved in industrial disputes during the year. Sympathy strikes, while amounting to only 2 5 percent of the total number, included slightly more than 13 percent of all the workers.

Outcome. Workers obtained partial gains or compromise settlements in approximately 1 out of every 3 strikes conducted during the year. These affected nearly two-thirds of all wage earners involved. Substantial gains for workers were realized in 35 percent of the disputes. These affected 16 percent of all the workers. In 28 percent of the labor disputes, affecting nearly 14 percent of all the workers, little or no gain for the employees was reported. In matters dealing with labor organization, workers were successful in 36 percent of the cases, partially successful in 30 percent, and gained little or nothing in 31 percent. Where wages and hours were the major issues, 38 percent resulted in settlements favorable and 25 percent in settlements unfavorable to the workers. Compromise settlements were made in 36 percent of all the strikes and lockouts on matters of wages and hours.

THE AMOUNT OF LABOR CONSUMED IN PRODUCING CEMENT

BERNARD H. TOPKIS
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

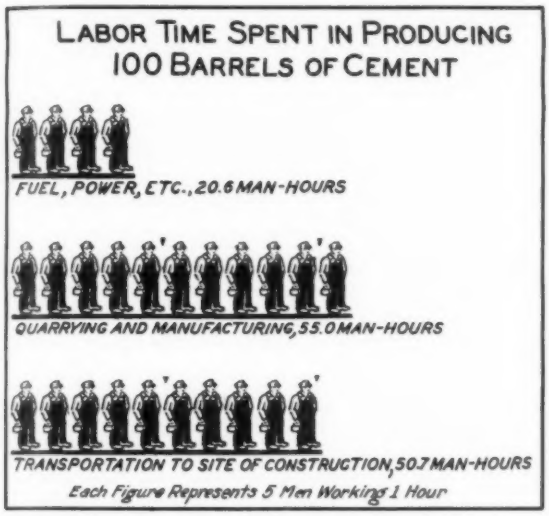
Approximately 126 man-hours of labor are required to produce 100 barrels of portland cement and transport them to the site of a construction project. Fuel, power, and certain ingredients, such as gypsum, account for slightly less than one-sixth of the total man-hours consumed. Manufacturing operations in and about the mill, which include quarrying raw materials, consume nearly 44 percent, and transportation of the cement from the plant to the construction site accounts for the remaining 40 percent of the total labor time spent in producing cement.

This information was collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics as a part of its program to measure both the direct and indirect employment of labor involved in a public-works program of building bridges, dams, roads, etc. The employment of labor on the site of construction can be measured precisely from the pay-roll records of the contractors. It is a much more difficult task to determine the amount of indirect employment arising in connection with the manufacture and transportation of the principal materials, such as steel, cement, and lumber, which are used in construction projects. In a previous article, published in the April 1935 issue of the Labor Information Bulletin, an analysis was made of the amount of labor time consumed in producing steel.

Portland cement is made from such raw materials as limestone, cement rock, clay, shale, etc. Before the actual production of cement at the plant can be undertaken, quantities of coal and electricity for heating and power, steel for grinding purposes and binding bags or sacks must be brought to the mill. In addition, small amounts of gypsum necessary to control the setting time of the cement must be obtained. The labor time spent in the production of these items and their transportation to the plant account for 20.6 man-hours of work.

In order to secure the necessary raw materials the cement mill usually operates an adjacent quarry. The quarrying operations consume approximately 7.7 man-hours of labor

for every 100 barrels of cement produced. The manufacturing process consists first of assembling, preparing, and mixing the raw materials, then fusing them chemically under high temperatures, and, finally, grinding

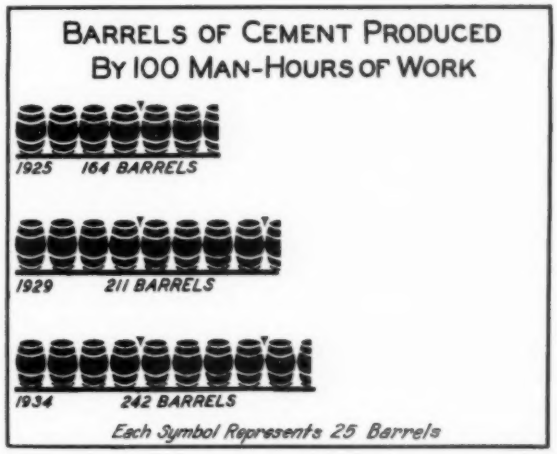

LABOR TIME SPENT IN PRODUCING 100 BARRELS OF CEMENT
FUEL, POWER, ETC., 20.6 MAN-HOURS
QUARRYING AND MANUFACTURING, 55.0 MAN-HOURS
TRANSPORTATION TO SITE OF CONSTRUCTION, 50.7 MAN-HOURS
Each Figure Represents 5 Men Working 1 Hour

the cement clinkers into a fine powder. This work takes on the average 18 man-hours for every 100 barrels of cement. Storing the cement and preparing it for shipment in bulk, or in cloth or paper sacks accounts for 6.3 man-hours. Maintenance work in and about the plant -- repairs, overhauling machinery, and relining kilns -- takes on the average 8.5 man-hours. Overhead and administrative items, including the work of office employees, foremen, and superintendents, and the maintenance of sales organizations and general offices, consumes 14.5 man-hours. The total labor time thus spent in and about the plant accounts for 55 man-hours in the manufacture of 100 barrels of cement.

Transportation of the cement from the mill to the construction site furnishes on the average 50.7 man-hours of employment. Three-fourths of this labor time (38.4 man-hours) is spent in railroad transportation. The transfer of the cement from freight cars to trucks, together with the labor time spent in operating the trucks to and from the building project, accounts for the remaining 12.3 man-hours of work.

Effect of Size of Plant on Labor Cost. An analysis of the manufacturing operations of 88 cement plants revealed for 1934 that labor efficiency was greater in the larger plants. Mills having an annual capacity of more than 3,000,000 barrels required on the average 40 hours of labor to produce 100 barrels of cement. In mills with a capacity of less than 1,000,000 barrels, 64.5 man-hours were necessary to produce a similar quantity of cement. Fifty-eight of the 88 plants had an annual capacity of between 1,000,000 and 2,000,000 barrels. These plants required from 48.5 to 56.0 man-hours for the manufacture of 100 barrels of cement.

Trend of Productivity, 1925-34. The output of cement workers calculated on a man-hour basis increased by nearly 48 percent between 1925 and 1934. In 1925 for every 100 man-hours of labor 164 barrels of cement were produced. In 1934, 100 hours of employment produced 242 barrels. It means that 41.3 man-hours of work could produce the same amount of cement in 1934 that required 61.1 man-hours of work in 1925. This is a reduction in labor requirements of about one-third. Technological improvements,


BARRELS OF CEMENT PRODUCED BY 100 MAN-HOURS OF WORK
1925 164 BARRELS
1929 211 BARRELS
1934 242 BARRELS
Each Symbol Represents 25 Barrels

such as the use of larger grinding units, longer kilns, and the introduction of filters in wet-process mills, largely contributed to the increased labor productivity in the manufacture of cement.

EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS IN DECEMBER 1935

Approximately 323,000 workers were returned to jobs in December 1935 in the manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries. Estimated weekly pay rolls in these industries were $13,300,000 greater than in November 1935. Total employment in December 1935 was nearly 695,000 higher than in December 1934. Weekly pay rolls to the workers employed in these industries were $38,100,000 larger.

MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

Factory employment in December 1935 was estimated at 7,089,000. This was a decline of 29,600 workers, or less than one-half of 1 percent, from the preceding month. The weekly wage income of the workers employed advanced from about $151,600,000 in November to $155,900,000 in December.

Normally, factory employment shows a pronounced seasonal decline in December. The small decrease in employment during the month indicates that manufacturing activities continued on a high level in the closing month of 1935. Averaged over the 12-month period, factory employment and pay rolls in 1935 were higher than in any year since 1930. However, employment in 1935 was still 22 percent lower than in 1929; average weekly pay rolls were 36 percent lower.

EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS IN MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

YEAR	EMPLOYMENT	PAY ROLLS
1935	6,900,000	$143,000,000
1934	6,600,000	126,000,000
1933	5,800,000	99,000,000
1932	5,400,000	94,000,000
1931	6,500,000	137,000,000
1930	7,700,000	181,000,000
1929	8,800,000	222,000,000

EMPLOYMENT

Durable-Goods Industries. Employment in the durable-goods industries declined slightly in December, as compared with the previous month. Gains of 13,000 workers in transportation equipment and 500 in railroad repair shops were not sufficient to offset losses in employment of 13,800 in lumber, 6,200 in machinery, 4,200 in stone, clay, and glass, 2,300 in nonferrous metals, and 1,700 in iron and steel. As a result the net decrease in employment in durable-goods industries totaled 14,700.

Over the 12-month period from December 1934 to December 1935 approximately 489,000 additional workers found jobs in the durable-goods industries. All groups included in this type of industries employed more workers in December 1935 than in December 1934. The gains in employment were:

140,300 in transportation equipment
128,200 in machinery manufacturing
85,900 in iron and steel
61,500 in lumber
37,000 in nonferrous metals
18,300 in railroad repair shops
17,900 in stone, clay, and glass

Nondurable-Goods Industries. Approximately 14,900 fewer workers were employed in nondurable-goods industries in December than in the preceding month. Five out of the 8 groups included in this class reported declines in employment for the month -- foodstuffs, 23,700; chemicals, 4,200; textiles, 3,200; tobacco, 2,100; and the unclassified industries, 100. Employment rose by 12,700 in leather products, 5,300 in paper and printing, and 400 in rubber manufacturing.

The nondurable-goods industries employed 55,600 more workers in December 1935 than in December of the year preceding. Approximately 11,100 fewer workers were employed in the manufacture of foodstuffs and 5,200 in tobacco manufactures. In the remaining industries employment over the 12-month period advanced by --

65,200 in textiles
11,700 in paper and printing
7,600 in chemicals
4,600 in leather
3,800 in rubber
19,000 in unclassified industries

ESTIMATED EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS IN MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

DECEMBER 1935, NOVEMBER 1935, and DECEMBER 1934

INDUSTRY	NUMBER OF WORKERS EMPLOYED			AMOUNT OF WEEKLY PAY ROLL		
	DECEMBER 1935*	NOVEMBER 1935‡	DECEMBER 1934	DECEMBER 1935*	NOVEMBER 1935‡	DECEMBER 1934
All industries	7,089,100	7,118,700	6,544,400	$155,852,000	$151,557,000	$128,593,000
Durable-goods groups:	*3,281,400*	*3,296,100*	*2,792,300*	*79,696,000*	*77,565,000*	*57,387,000*
Iron and steel	658,100	659,800	572,200	16,940,000	16,052,000	11,737,000
Machinery	817,500	823,700	689,300	19,090,000	18,664,000	14,240,000
Transportation equipment.	582,100	569,100	441,800	17,937,000	17,472,000	11,637,000
Railroad repair shops . .	269,000	268,500	250,700	7,744,000	7,392,000	6,022,000
Nonferrous metals	260,800	263,100	223,800	5,819,000	5,753,000	4,529,000
Lumber	500,500	514,300	439,000	8,206,000	8,335,000	6,168,000
Stone, clay, and glass .	193,400	197,600	175,500	3,960,000	3,897,000	3,054,000
Nondurable-goods groups:	*3,807,700*	*3,822,600*	*3,752,100*	*76,156,000*	*73,992,000*	*71,206,000*
Textiles	1,577,300	1,580,500	1,512,100	25,974,000	25,246,000	23,852,000
Leather	278,900	266,200	274,300	5,260,000	4,653,000	4,827,000
Foods	642,700	666,400	693,800	13,728,000	13,939,000	14,156,000
Tobacco	80,500	82,600	85,700	1,104,000	1,088,000	1,110,000
Paper and printing . . .	529,500	524,200	517,800	13,646,000	13,081,000	12,828,000
Chemicals	369,900	374,100	362,300	8,403,000	8,249,000	7,633,000
Rubber	111,500	111,100	107,700	2,591,000	2,438,000	2,289,000
Unclassified	217,400	217,500	198,400	5,450,000	5,298,000	4,511,000

* *Preliminary* ‡ *Revised*

PAY ROLLS

Durable-Goods Industries. Despite the decline in the number of workers employed, weekly pay rolls in the durable-goods industries were $2,131,000 larger in December 1935 than in the previous month. With the exception of a reduction of $129,000 in the weekly pay rolls in the lumber group, all groups of durable-goods industries had larger weekly pay rolls in December than in November. The gains in the weekly wages paid to workers employed varied in amounts from $63,000 in stone, clay, and glass and $66,000 in nonferrous metals to $465,000 in transportation equipment and $888,000 in iron and steel.

All durable-goods industries had larger weekly pay rolls in December 1935 than in the corresponding month in 1934. The total gain in the weekly pay roll for the entire group amounted to $22,300,000. The greatest advances in pay-roll disbursements over the 12-month period occurred in transportation equipment ($6,300,000), iron and steel ($5,203,000), and in machinery manufacturing ($4,850,000).

Nondurable-Goods Industries. As in the case of the durable-goods industries the decline in the number of workers in the nondurable-goods industries was accompanied by an increase in weekly pay rolls. The rise from $73,990,000 in November to $76,160,000 in December represented an increase of $2,170,000. The weekly wage income of workers employed in manufacturing foodstuffs declined $211,000 during the month. All other groups reported increased pay rolls, ranging

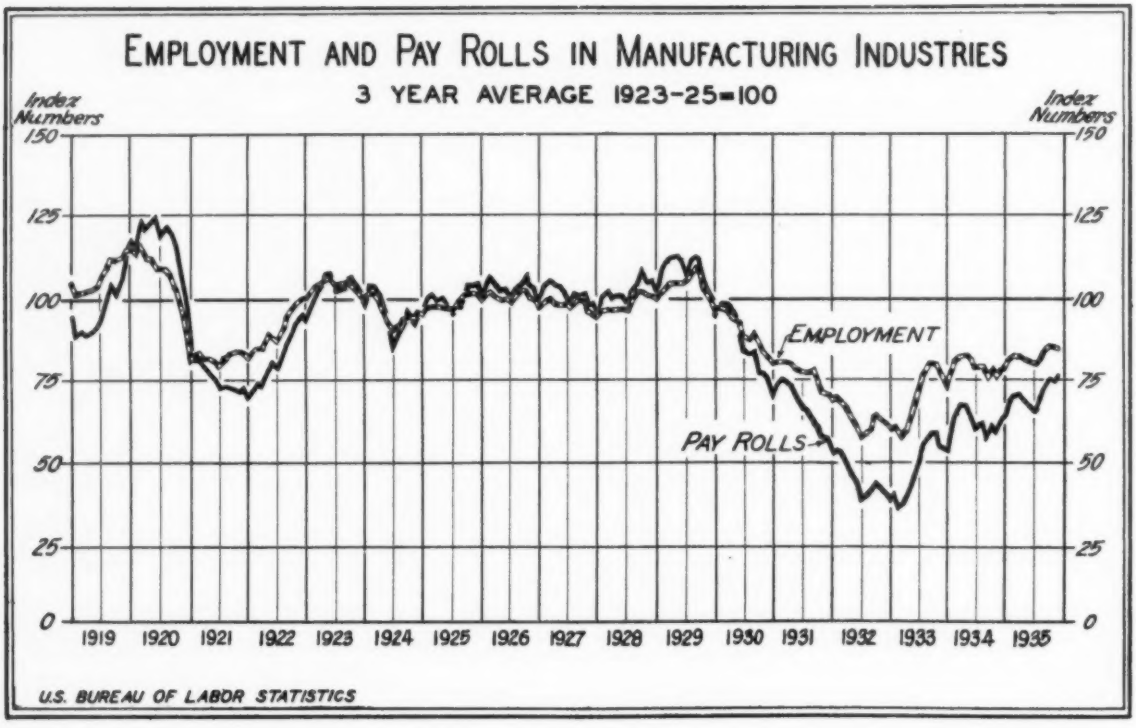
from $16,000 in tobacco manufactures to $607,000 in leather products and $728,000 in textiles.

Over the 12-month period, December 1934 to December 1935, weekly pay-roll disbursements in the nondurable-goods industries rose by approximately $4,950,000. Pay-roll reductions of $428,000 in foodstuffs and $6,000 in tobacco were more than offset by increases of $2,122,000 in textiles, $818,000 in paper and printing, $770,000 in chemicals, $433,000 in leather, $302,000 in rubber, and $939,000 in the unclassified group.

TREND OF EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS IN MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

Employment in manufacturing industries decreased 0.4 percent between November and December 1935. It was 8.3 percent higher in December 1935 than in December 1934. For every 1,000 workers employed on the average during 1923-25, 846 persons had jobs in December 1935, 849 in November, and 781 in December 1934. This is the meaning of the Bureau of Labor Statistics' employment index, which was 84.6 in December 1935, 84.9 in November, and 78.1 in December 1934.

The weekly wage income of workers employed in manufacturing industries in December was 2.8 percent higher than in November, and 21.2 percent higher than in December 1934. The Bureau of Labor Statistics pay-roll index was 76.6 in December 1935, 74.5 in November, and 63.2 in December 1934. This means that for every $100 paid out on the average in weekly wages during the base period, 1923-25, workers received $76.60 in December 1935, $74.50 in November, and $63.20 in December 1934.



HOURS OF WORK AND EARNINGS IN MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

Employment in manufacturing industries in December 1935 averaged 39 hours per week -- approximately 1 hour more per week than in November 1935 and 4 hours more per week than in December 1934. Earnings per hour averaged 57 cents in December, 56½ cents in November, and 56 cents in December 1934. Factory workers earned on the average $22.25 per week in December, as compared with $21.75 in the previous month and $19.75 in December 1934.

Weekly earnings:

$29.70 in automobiles
25.70 in blast furnaces and rolling mills
24.65 in foundries and machine shops
17.85 in brick manufacturing
17.70 in sawmills

Average weekly hours of work and average hourly and weekly earnings in the five selected nondurable-goods industries in December 1935 were --

HOURS OF WORK AND EARNINGS IN THE MANUFACTURE OF TEXTILE FABRICS

INDUSTRY	HOURS OF WORK			HOURLY EARNINGS			WEEKLY EARNINGS		
	DECEMBER 1935	NOVEMBER 1935	DECEMBER 1934	DECEMBER 1935	NOVEMBER 1935	DECEMBER 1934	DECEMBER 1935	NOVEMBER 1935	DECEMBER 1934
				Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*			
Carpets and rugs	36.0	34.5	32.5	55.5	55.5	57.0	$19.85	$18.95	$18.50
Cotton goods	37.5	36.0	35.5	37.0	37.0	37.5	13.90	13.35	13.40
Cotton, small wares	40.0	37.5	37.0	45.0	45.5	44.0	18.05	17.00	16.40
Dyeing and finishing textiles	37.5	35.0	37.0	52.5	52.5	53.0	19.75	18.55	19.55
Hats, fur-felt	35.5	28.5	29.0	68.5	68.0	73.5	24.20	19.85	21.00
Knit goods	36.0	37.0	35.0	47.5	48.0	48.5	16.90	17.50	16.80
Silk and rayon goods	36.5	35.0	34.5	43.5	43.5	45.0	15.85	15.40	15.55
Woolen and worsted goods . .	38.5	36.5	37.0	49.5	49.0	48.0	18.90	17.70	17.75

In the five selected durable-goods industries the average weekly hours and hourly and weekly earnings in December 1935 were --

Weekly hours:

41.0 in foundries and machine shops
40.0 in automobiles
40.0 in sawmills
39.5 in brick manufacturing
39.0 in blast furnaces

Hourly earnings (in cents):

75.0 in automobiles
66.0 in blast furnaces and rolling mills
60.0 in foundries and machine shops
45.0 in brick manufacturing
45.0 in sawmills

Weekly hours:

42.0 in slaughtering and meat packing
41.0 in paper and pulp
37.5 in cotton-goods manufacturing
36.5 in petroleum refining
35.5 in tires and inner tubes

Hourly earnings (in cents):

82.5 in tires and inner tubes
80.5 in petroleum refining
56.0 in slaughtering and meat packing
53.5 in paper and pulp
37.0 in cotton-goods manufacturing

Weekly earnings:

$29.25 in petroleum refining
28.85 in tires and inner tubes
23.55 in slaughtering and meat packing
21.80 in paper and pulp
13.90 in cotton-goods manufacturing

The average hours worked per week in the 10 selected industries were higher in December 1935 than in the corresponding month of 1934. The increases ranged from 2 hours per week in cotton-goods manufacturing, petroleum refining, slaughtering and meat packing, and tires and inner tubes to 10 hours per week for workers employed in blast furnaces and rolling mills.

Workers employed in all the 10 selected industries averaged higher wages per week in December 1935 than in December 1934. The increases varied in amounts from 25 cents per week in slaughtering and meat packing to $4.70 for wage earners employed in automobile establishments and $6.60 for workers in blast furnaces and rolling mills.

EMPLOYMENT, PAY ROLLS, WAGES, AND HOURS IN SELECTED NONMANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

INDUSTRY	DECEMBER 1935*	NOVEMBER 1935‡	DECEMBER 1934
RETAIL TRADE			
Employment.....	3,656,600	3,314,300	3,569,900
Weekly pay roll.	$63,747,000	$58,239,000	$60,765,000
Weekly hours....	43.5	42.5	42.0
Hourly earnings.	$0.49	$0.51	$0.50
Weekly earnings.	$19.60	$19.60	$19.15
WHOLESALE TRADE			
Employment.....	1,393,100	1,386,700	1,364,300
Weekly pay roll.	$39,710,000	$38,726,000	$37,511,000
Weekly hours....	42.5	41.5	41.0
Hourly earnings.	$0.65	$0.62	$0.62
Weekly earnings.	$27.45	$26.65	$26.10
STEAM RAILROADS			
Employment.....	971,465	984,300	949,400
Weekly pay roll.	$32,694,000	$31,845,000	$28,325,000
Weekly earnings.	$34.70	$32.35	$29.85
BITUMINOUS COAL			
Employment.....	363,300	349,100	365,600
Weekly pay roll.	$7,660,000	$7,240,000	$6,301,000
Weekly hours....	29.0	27.5	26.5
Hourly earnings.	$0.80	$0.82	$0.71
Weekly earnings.	$22.75	$22.30	$18.60
TELEPHONE & TELEGRAPH			
Employment.....	373,100	374,100	373,600
Weekly pay roll.	$10,932,000	$10,831,000	$10,585,000
Weekly hours....	38.5	39.0	38.0
Hourly earnings.	$0.78	$0.76	$0.75
Weekly earnings.	$29.50	$28.85	$27.85

INDUSTRY	DECEMBER 1935*	NOVEMBER 1935‡	DECEMBER 1934
HOTELS			
Employment.....	235,100	237,200	232,800
Weekly pay roll.	$3,173,000	$3,202,000	$3,075,000
Weekly hours....	48.5	48.0	47.5
Hourly earnings.	$0.28	$0.28	$0.28
Weekly earnings.	$13.75	$13.70	$13.50
POWER and LIGHT			
Employment.....	278,700	280,300	267,500
Weekly pay roll.	$8,175,000	$7,928,000	$7,443,000
Weekly hours....	40.0	39.5	38.5
Hourly earnings.	$0.79	$0.77	$0.77
Weekly earnings.	$31.40	$30.25	$29.85
ELECTRIC RAILROADS			
Employment.....	188,200	189,800	189,600
Weekly pay roll.	$5,653,000	$5,456,000	$5,228,000
Weekly earnings.	$29.80	$28.60	$28.00
LAUNDRIES			
Employment.....	189,100	189,600	185,400
Weekly pay roll.	$2,971,000	$2,925,000	$2,786,000
Weekly hours....	41.0	40.5	39.0
Hourly earnings.	$0.37	$0.37	$0.37
Weekly earnings.	$15.70	$15.65	$14.95
DYEING & CLEANING			
Employment.....	43,400	45,100	42,800
Weekly pay roll.	$772,000	$809,000	$746,000
Weekly hours....	41.0	41.0	39.5
Hourly earnings.	$0.43	$0.43	$0.43
Weekly earnings.	$17.75	$17.90	$17.15

* *Preliminary* ‡ *Revised*

BUSINESS AND ECONOMIC CONDITIONS IN DECEMBER 1935

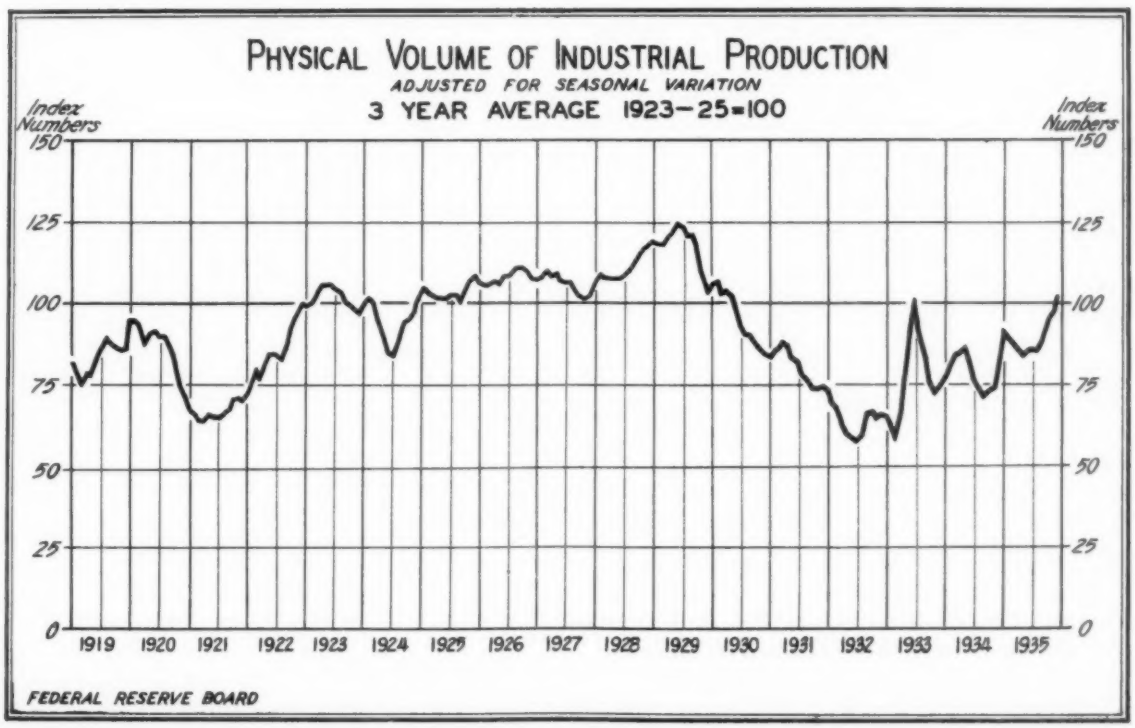
AGRICULTURE

Farm Income. Cash income of farmers from all sources was estimated by the Department of Agriculture at $645,000,000 in December, as compared with $716,000,000 in November and $526,000,000 in December 1934.

Farm Wages. Farm wage rates declined seasonally throughout the country between October 1, 1935, and January 1, 1936. For the United States as a whole, farm laborers received $18.55 per month with board on January 1, 1936, as compared with $20.55 in October 1935, $17.05 on January 1, 1935, and $20.40 for the 5-year period between 1910 and 1914. Monthly earnings of farm workers, without board, were $28.65 on January 1, 1936, as against $30.40 on October 1, 1935, $26.70 on January 1, 1935, and $29.10 for 1910-14.

INDUSTRY AND TRADE

Industrial production in December 1935 reached its highest level since the spring of 1930. As shown on the chart below, the Federal Reserve Board's index of industrial production advanced to 103 in December 1935 from 98 in November and 86 in December 1934. Industrial production in December was thus 5 percent greater than in the preceding month and nearly 20 percent greater than in December 1934.



BUSINESS AND INDUSTRIAL BAROMETERS

Automobiles. Production of passenger cars and trucks in December 1935 amounted to nearly 408,000 units -- about 10,000 cars more than in November and over 2½ times as many as in December 1934.

Bituminous Coal. Output of bituminous coal in December is estimated at 34,800,000 tons. This was an increase of more than 1,500,000 tons over the previous month and 2,300,000 tons over December 1934.

Building Permits. The value of building construction for which permits were issued in the principal cities in the United States totaled $76,000,000 in December, as against $78,400,000 in the preceding month. The value of construction permits issued was 2½ times as great in December 1935 as in December of the previous year.

Electric Power. Output of electric power averaged 1,951 million kilowatt hours per week during December -- approximately 30 million kilowatt hours per week more than in November and 214 million kilowatt hours per week more than in December 1934.

Railroad Freight Car Loadings. Class I railroads averaged 580,000 freight cars loaded per week during December -- 45,000 cars per week less than in the previous month but nearly 54,000 cars per week more than in December 1934.

Retail Trade. Sales of two large mail order houses in December was estimated at $90,800,000, as against $71,800,000 in November and $76,600,000 in December 1934.

Steel. Production of steel ingots was approximately 3,082,000 tons in December -- 71,000 tons less than in the preceding month but more than 1½ times as much as in December 1934.

FEDERAL GOVERNMENT EMPLOYMENT AND RELIEF IN DECEMBER 1935

Works Program. During December more than 2,553,000 workers were employed on Federal projects and State W.P.A. activities financed by the Works Program. Employment during the month was about twice as large as in November. Pay-roll expenditures of $102,000,000 were $49,000,000 larger than for the previous month.

Public Works. Employment on the site of P.W.A. construction work declined by about 39,000 in December 1935. Approximately 232,000 persons received slightly more than $16,300,000 in wages during the month.

Emergency Conservation Work. About 37,000 fewer persons were employed by the Civilian Conservation Corps in December than in November. Employment during the month totaled 507,000 persons, of whom 453,000 were enrolled workers and 54,000 were reserve officers, educational advisers, and technical employees. Pay-roll distributions were slightly more than $21,900,000.

Emergency Relief Work. Only about one-fifth as many persons were engaged in emergency relief work in December as in the preceding month. Preliminary estimates indicate that approximately $1,845,000 was distributed to 68,000 persons for relief work in December 1935.

Emergency Relief. Due principally to the transfer of persons to jobs on the Works Program, the number of persons receiving emergency relief declined by 18 percent in December 1935. Preliminary reports to the Federal Emergency Relief Administration from 142 cities indicate that the number of cases receiving emergency relief decreased from 1,638,000 in November to 1,345,000 in December 1935. Expenditures declined 21 percent, from $43,340,000 in November to $34,260,000 in December.

WHAT HAPPENED TO PRICES IN DECEMBER 1935

Wholesale Prices. Wholesale commodity prices, averaged for the country as a whole, increased slightly in December over the preceding month. They were 5.2 percent higher than in December 1934. The Bureau of Labor Statistics index of wholesale prices was 80.9 in December 1935 and 80.6 in November, as compared with 76.9 in December 1934 and 100 in 1926. In other words, commodities purchased at wholesale for $100 in 1926 cost $80.90 in December 1935, $80.60 in November 1935, and $76.90 in December 1934.

INDEX OF WHOLESALE PRICES

ITEM	1926	DECEMBER 1935	DECEMBER 1934	INCREASE (+) OR DECREASE (-) DECEMBER 1934 TO DECEMBER 1935
	Index	*Index*	*Index*	*Percent*
All commodities	100	80.9	76.9	+ 5.2
Farm products	100	78.8	72.0	+ 8.8
Raw materials	100	77.7	73.1	+ 6.3
Semimanufactured articles . . .	100	75.2	71.0	+ 5.9
Finished products	100	83.1	79.5	+ 4.5

Retail Food Prices. The average retail price of 84 food items in 51 cities scattered throughout the United States was 1.4 percent higher in December 1935 than in November. It was 10.2 percent higher than in December 1934. The Bureau of Labor Statistics revised index of retail food prices in December 1935 was 75.8 as against 74.7 in November 1935, 68.8 in December 1934, and 100 in 1926. This means that for every dollar's worth of foodstuffs bought in retail markets in 1926 consumers paid approximately 75.8 cents in December 1935, 74.7 cents in November, and 68.8 cents in December 1934.

AVERAGE RETAIL FOOD PRICES FOR THE COUNTRY AS A WHOLE

ITEM	RETAIL PRICE		INCREASE (+) OR DECREASE (-) DECEMBER 1934 TO DECEMBER 1935	
	DECEMBER 1935	DECEMBER 1934		
	Cents	*Cents*	*Cents*	*Percent*
Bread, pound	8.6	8.3	+ 0.3	+ 3.6
Butter, pound	40.1	35.3	+ 4.8	+ 13.6
Milk, quart	11.6	11.7	- .1	- .9
Eggs, dozen	41.7	38.5	+ 3.2	+ 8.3
Potatoes, pound . . .	2.3	1.7	+ .6	+ 35.3
Lard, pound	19.3	15.4	+ 3.9	+ 25.3
Pork chops, pound . .	34.8	24.1	+ 10.7	+ 44.4
Round steak, pound . .	34.7	27.5	+ 7.2	+ 26.2
Sugar, pound	5.8	5.6	+ .2	+ 3.6
Coffee, pound	24.3	28.0	- 3.7	- 13.2

THE 1935-36 FOOD SUPPLY IN QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

Each year the Bureau of Agricultural Economics of the U. S. Department of Agriculture prepares a report forecasting the probable total supply of the principal foods for the ensuing year. Naturally, the forecasts cannot take into consideration unforeseen weather and growing conditions, or changes in national policy affecting agriculture. The estimates should therefore be regarded merely as an expression of the best judgment of the Government's agricultural experts.

1. WHAT IS THE GENERAL FOOD OUTLOOK FOR 1935-36?

The combined supply of all foods available for consumption in the United States for the period July 1, 1935, to June 30, 1936, may be slightly larger than the quantity consumed in the 1934-35 season. It is estimated that it will be about 2 percent smaller than in the 1933-34 season, and about 1 percent smaller than the average for the 5-year period between 1925 and 1929. Larger supplies of all foods, except meat products, eggs, rice, and Irish potatoes, are expected to be available at the retail markets during the current season.

The 1934 drought still continues to be an important factor in the national food situation. The marked decrease in the numbers of livestock and in the weight of the cattle that survived the drought has greatly reduced the supplies of meat and lard. Rust and drought in 1935 also combined to reduce the wheat crop in some sections of the country.

2. HOW MUCH MEAT, POULTRY, AND EGGS WILL BE AVAILABLE?

The total supply of meats other than poultry in 1935-36 is expected to be about 14 percent smaller than during the corresponding period of 1934-35 and 21 percent below the 17½ billion pound average of 1925-29. Production of pork, it is estimated, will be about 16 percent less than in the preceding year, but the supply of beef, veal, and lamb will remain about the same.

Poultry meats in 1935-36 will not quite reach the quantities consumed in 1934-35. The number of poultry has been declining for 2 years, but indications are that the decline has now been stopped. However, farmers are expected to keep a larger than usual proportion of pullets for egg laying.

The supply of eggs available for domestic consumption will probably be 2 percent less than last season, 5 percent less than 2 years ago, and 12 percent less than the average for 1925-29.

3. WHAT ARE THE MILK AND BUTTER PROSPECTS?

More milk will probably be produced in the 12 months ending June 1936 than in any corresponding period on record. The increased production in milk, due to excellent pastures in the dairy States and an abundant production of feed suitable for feeding dairy cows, is likely to result also in a larger supply of butter. During recent years, about 45 percent of the total quantity of milk produced has been used to make butter. At this rate, the amount of butter available for domestic use, it is estimated, will be about 7 percent more than in 1934-35 and about 11 percent more than the average for the 5 years between 1925 and 1929.

4. HOW LARGE ARE THE SUPPLIES OF WHEAT AND RICE?

Except for a scarcity of good milling hard wheat for flour purposes, wheat supplies are expected to be larger than is usually required for domestic needs. The total amount of wheat available should run 2 percent over the 1934-35 supply and 4 percent over the average for 1925-29.

Although the production of rice is expected to be slightly larger this year, carry-over stocks have been reduced substantially, and it is probable that the supply available for domestic uses will be about 7 percent smaller than in the previous season.

5. WHAT IS THE OUTLOOK FOR FRESH, CANNED, AND DRIED FRUITS?

Fruits of all kinds -- fresh, canned, and dried -- will be more than ample for all requirements. The supply of fresh fruit will probably be 13 percent greater than in 1934-35, and 15 percent above the average for 1925-29. The supply of pears and citrus fruits, however, may not be quite so large as in the previous year.

The total supply of commercially canned fruits, including carry-over stocks, is about 8 percent larger than in the preceding year and 20 percent larger than the average for 1925-29. Canned peaches, apricots, cherries, apples, and grapefruit are expected to be more plentiful, but the supply of pears, although plentiful, will not be quite so large as last year.

Dried fruits, including carry-over stocks, may be available in quantities 29 percent greater than the amount consumed by the country in 1934-35. Raisins and dried apples are expected to be sufficient, while the supplies of dried peaches and apricots may be smaller than usual.

6. WILL THE SUPPLY OF FRESH AND CANNED VEGETABLES BE AS LARGE AS LAST YEAR?

It is expected that greater quantities of both fresh and canned vegetables will be marketed this season than in the preceding year. Production of onions, cabbage, carrots, and sweetpotatoes -- all normally stored for winter use -- was relatively large in 1935. At the rate of last spring's production, the supply of green vegetables for fresh-market shipment will probably be 7 percent larger than for the same period of last year and 19 percent above the supply of 2 years ago. It will about equal the average for 1925-29.

Production of vegetables for canning was very large during the 1935 season, due to increased planting and good yields. Canning establishments have been operating at full speed in order to replenish their stocks which were sharply reduced in 1934-35. The supply of most varieties this year is expected to be one of the largest on record. It is estimated that the quantities of canned vegetables available to consumers will be 16 percent more than in 1934-35, and 9 percent more than the average for 1925-29.

7. WHAT HAPPENED TO THE 1935 POTATO CROP?

Early freezing weather spoiled from 15 to 25 percent of the undug potatoes in the northern Irish-potato-growing States outside of New England. Carry-over of the 1935 crop, therefore, was not so great as was anticipated, and this season's available market supply of Irish potatoes is expected to be about 5 percent smaller than in the preceding season. Sweetpotato production in 1935 was about 2 percent larger than in 1934, and about 12 percent above the 1925-29 average.

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